1: Schultze--228 N-5 (1905-1908) 1907 FX13 Homeless FX13
Name

[Between 190 and 191]

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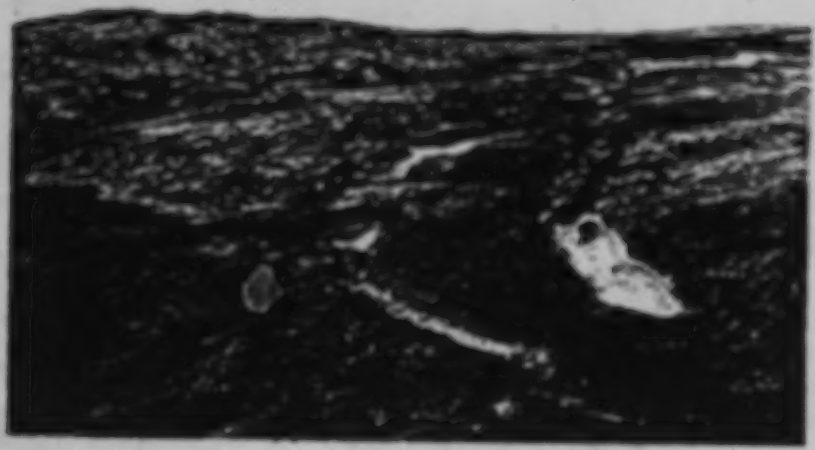
Nara-Dune in the Kuiseb River.



Salt Crusts in the Namib behind Walvis Bay.

[Between 362 and 363]

Plate XI.

A Tapuaar hut under a giraffe acacia.

Hottentot boy in an apron.

Acquisitions--The N-S (1964-1965) 1967 FA13 Harvard FA13 Nam

2: Schapera E-4, 5 (no date) 1930
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Bushmen FX10

superior to those of the other native peoples that they have been able to preserve much of their original cohesion and culture, and in many cases to offer a strong resistance to the disintegrating effects of contact with European civilisation.

The present work deals with those two groups of natives who have suffered most at the hands of the European settlers: the Bushmen and the Hottentots. In spite of the far-reaching differences between them, they have in common several features, not only of race and language, but also of culture, especially religion, which justify their being treated together. These common features by no means render invalid the distinctions upon which is based the customary classification of these peoples into two separate groups. They are significant enough, however, to permit of both groups being regarded as constituting to some extent a larger ethnic unit, which, it is important to note, is clearly differentiated from the Bergdama on the one hand and the Bantu on the other. The term *Khoisan*, recently coined by Schultze to denote the racial stock to which the Bushmen and the Hottentots belong,[1] has therefore been accepted here as a convenient generic name for these two peoples. The necessity for such a generic name will perhaps be seen more clearly when the racial history of each people has been considered.

Topography: General Features

The Khoisan peoples at the present time live almost entirely in the western and central portions of South Africa. The main political areas within whose borders they are found are the Territory of South-West Africa, formerly a German colony, but now administered under mandate by the Union of South Africa; Bechuanaland Protectorate, administered directly by Great Britain through the High Commissioner for South Africa; and the central and western districts of the Union, principally in the Cape of Good Hope. The Bushmen formerly extended further east into Southern Rhodesia and over the rest of the Union, but have virtually disappeared from those parts.

The territory over which the two peoples are now scattered presents a solid land mass, covering an area of approximately 915,000 square

[1] L. Schultze, *Zur Kenntnis des Körpers der Hottentotten und Buschmänner*, 1928, p. 211. The term is compounded of the names *Khoi-Khoin*, by which the Hottentots call themselves, and *San*, applied by the Hottentots to the Bushmen. The latter have no collective name of their own.

2: Schapera E-4, 5 (no date) 1930
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Bushmen FX18

H B 133 miles, without peninsulas of any size or any large islands off its coasts.[1] By far the greater part has an elevation of over 3,000 feet above the sea, while the area below 1,500 feet is merely a narrow fringe round the coast. Most of the interior consists of a high plateau region, rising gradually around its borders and passing by degrees into an encircling belt of much diversified country. The escarpment which bounds it on the south-east, south, and west is continued by the Drakensberg Mountains of the Transvaal, the Drakensberg or Quathlamba of Natal and the Transkei, the Stormberg of the north-eastern Cape Province, the Sneeuwberg, Nieuweveld, Roggeveld, and Kamiesberg further south and west, and is continued northwards under less well-known names to beyond the Kunene River. These mountains appear to be of no great height when viewed from the interior plateau, but on the seaward side they fall steeply, though rather irregularly, to the much lower level of country on the west and south.

On the west, as far south as the Olifants River, the escarpment is separated from the ocean by slopes of a more uniform nature, but in the south the Great Karroo and long ranges of fold-mountains (the Cape Folded Belt) intervene between it and the coast. The coast-line on the west is generally low, almost unbroken by bays or promontories, and beaten all the year round by a heavy surf; on the south there are several prominent headlands, which, however, afford little protection to ships. The only good natural harbour of any size is Saldanha Bay in the south-west, but at Walvis Bay, Table Bay, Algoa Bay and other places ports have been constructed.

H B 132 The general characteristics of the climate are determined more by the physical conformation of the land than by proximity to the equator. The eastern escarpments of the high plateau intercept the rain-bearing winds from the Indian Ocean, so that over the greater part of the interior the rainfall is slight (5 to 24 inches). This, added to the elevation of the land, makes the climate in general dry, bracing, and suitable for Europeans, notwithstanding the fact that the northern part of the country is within the tropics. Owing to the gradual increase of altitude from the coast to the interior, there is a remarkable uniformity of mean annual temperature over the greater part of the region: at

[1] The description given above is compiled mainly from the following sources: S. Passarge, *Südafrika*, 1908, chaps. iii–xv *passim*; L. Schultze, "Südwestafrika," in *Das Deutsche Kolonialreich*, 1910 (ed. H. Meyer), vol. ii, pp. 129–298; *The Oxford Survey of the British Empire*, 1914, vol. on "Africa", chaps. i–v; *Official Year Book of the Union of South Africa*, No. 3, 1918, esp. chaps. ii and xxvii; *The South and East African Year Book and Guide* (ed. A. S. Brown and G. G. Brown), 1919 edition, pp. 85–98 and *passim*.

2: Schapera E-4, 5 (no date) 1930
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Bushmen FX10

very many places, irrespective of latitude or longitude, it is very close to 63° F., which is also the mean for the entire area. The difference between mean summer and mean winter temperatures is, however, considerable, increasing from the coast inland, while the daily range of temperature is also generally great. Frosts are common on the plateau during winter.

By far the greater part of the country receives the bulk of its rainfall in summer. The winter rainfall area is confined to a comparatively narrow strip parallel with the west coast, and the constant rainfall area to a much smaller belt in the south. Generally speaking the amount of precipitation decreases from east to west, with areas of heavier rainfall along the south coast and in the south-west. The average annual rainfall of about 24 inches is fairly regular all over the eastern half of South Africa, reaching a maximum of 40 inches in Zululand, and diminishing gradually along the south coast to rise again in the Cape Peninsula. It rapidly falls to 10 inches in the south-western Karroo, from which there is a steady decrease towards the north-west in South-West Africa, but the mean value is again approached in Angola and in the northern and eastern Kalahari.

This contrast in the amount and incidence of the rainfall tends to explain very largely the lack in correspondence of the principal river-systems in the south and west respectively. On the west the rivers are few, and only the Kunene, Orange, Olifants, and Berg are perennial, of which the first two, the largest, not only rise within centres of high rainfall, but also receive no important contributions throughout the lower part of their courses. In the south, owing to the moderately high winter rainfall, the smaller rivers rarely cease flowing, but all the important ones, such as the Gouritz, Gamtoos, and Sundays, actually originate in the interior region of summer rains behind the coast ranges and pass through the latter to the sea by means of deep gorges. They receive insufficient water in their courses across the Folded Belt to maintain a constant flow at all seasons, and in times of drought may become a series of pools.

Since most of the larger rivers rise upon the interior plateau, their gradients, over stretches, are high; sometimes there are waterfalls, such as the Ruacana on the Kunene and the Aughrabies on the Orange, while rocky bars or rapids may occur in their channels within the coastal belt or just before it is reached. In consequence of this great slope, and of the intermittent supply of water, none of the rivers is navigable beyond its estuary. The mouths of the rivers

2: Schapera E-4, 5 (no date) 1930
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Bushmen FX18

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are always obstructed by sand bars, and most of the rivers are further liable to receive sudden freshets, which sweep down with great force and render the fords impassable until they have subsided.

Natural Divisions and Vegetation

The Interior Plateau

Topographically the interior plateau can be divided up into several regions, more or less sharply defined from one another by the shape and character of the surface and by the climate. Its heart is constituted by the Kalahari Desert, a huge sand and bush-covered plain standing at an average elevation of 3,000 to 3,500 feet above the sea, and devoid of running water except in the extreme north. The greater part of this plain forms the western portion of Bechuanaland Protectorate, but it spreads south into that part of Bechuanaland annexed to the Cape and west into South-West Africa. The Orange River may be taken as marking its southern limit; westwards it reaches to the foot of the Nama and Damara highlands of South-West Africa, eastwards to the cultivated parts of Bechuanaland, and northwards to the Congo-Zambesi watershed, embracing the valley of the Okavango and the bed of Lake Ngami.

The Kalahari as a whole is arid and scored by the beds of dried-up rivers. Its surface is thickly covered with red sand and calcareous deposits, through which the basement rocks seldom show. In a few places, however, they project abruptly above the plains in the form of isolated bare hills, which though not high are conspicuous on account of the monotonous regularity of the surface from which they arise. The ground is undulating and is thrown up towards the west into extensive belts of parallel sand dunes, in part, however, fixed by vegetation, which cover a great portion of the country in the south and stretch with interruptions to beyond Lake Ngami.

Throughout the Desert there are extensive mud flats, which after heavy rains become pans and lakes of shallow water, and water is then also found in mud-bottomed pools along the beds of rivers. All over the country numerous small pans or vleis also occur in crater-like depressions where the rock rises above the desert sands. The water in these pans is often brackish and in some cases thickly encrusted with salt. The native routes lead from pan to pan, or from one waterhole in the bed of a sandy river to another. During the dry season the lack of water is so widespread in the Southern

2: Schapera E-4, 5 (no date) 1930
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and Middle Kalahari that it is scarcely possible to traverse parts of the country, and many routes can only be followed at such times as the pools have been filled by recent rain.

The winter climate is delightful. The heat during the other months is great, but there are occasional short, sudden, and therefore treacherous changes from extreme heat to cold. Malarial fever is prevalent, being particularly severe in the neighbourhood of the water-courses and other low-lying places, where during and immediately after the season of the heavy rains the dense bush, thick undergrowth, and rank vegetation afford excellent shelter to mosquitoes. The rainfall varies from about 8 inches in the west-west to more than 20 inches in the north and east; almost all the rain falls in the summer months, December to April, and chiefly in thunderstorms. Except in the north, none of this rainfall reaches the sea, the water being either evaporated directly or flowing into shallow depressions such as Lake Ngami and the Great Makarikarri salt-pan. Over wide areas the country is so flat that the rain drains off partly in one direction, partly in another.

The principal river in the north is the Okavango, which, rising in the Angola highlands, flows into the Okavango marshes, a region about a hundred miles in length and from ten to fifty miles in width. From this reed-choked swamp the river at certain seasons overflows on the north into the Kwando and so reaches the Zambesi, and on the south into Lake Ngami and the Botletle River, which feeds the Makarikarri depression and the great sandy plain of the north-east. During the rains the whole of this region is covered with wide stretches of water, often extending far beyond the horizon. The Nossob, Molopo, and Kuruman Rivers in the south, which formerly drained the greater part of the Middle and Southern Kalahari into the Orange River, are now for the most part sandy beds bordered with trees, and water is seldom found except towards their heads. At the present time no water leaves this part of the Kalahari except through evaporation. The country appears to be suffering from progressive desiccation, but there is said to be good evidence of an abundant supply of water not far beneath the surface.

The rainfall, though very small in the west and south, enables a fair amount of vegetation to flourish, chiefly grasses, shrubs, and trees, except in certain areas where the soil is too saline. The great plains, more especially in the south, are covered with tough sun-bleached Bushman grass (*Aristida brevifolia*), growing knee-high and giving

2: Schapera E-4, 5 (no date) 1930
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Northern Damaraland to the south of the Kaoko region is a vast tract of extensive grass plains, from which emerge isolated eminences and a few mountain chains superimposed on the main plateau. Further south the whole country attains its highest elevation of over 6,000 feet in the Khomashochland of Windhoek district, while south and east of Windhoek rise the great Auas Mountains (highest altitude 7,886 feet), which form the watershed of South-West Africa. Deep clefts and gorges, widely-extended plains and high rugged peaks are characteristic of this region; valleys, too, expand in among the mountain groups, and are often of extreme fertility. To the south succeed the plateaux and table-topped mountains of Great Namaqualand. This part of the country is dominated by two longitudinal trenches, that of the Konkip to the west, that of the Great Fish River to the east. West of the former is a series of mountain ranges and elevated plains, among them being the Tsaras and Tiras Mountains and the Huib plateau, while to the east of it is the Hanam plateau. Still further east, beyond the Great Fish River, the Urinamib plateau overlooks the Kalahari. In the south-east the isolated Great and Little Karas Mountains rise to considerable heights, but the country is for the greater part flat or rolling. Eastward and north-east of these elevated tracts, the upland assumes a very level character, composed mainly of sand dune formation merging eventually everywhere into the sandveld of the Kalahari.

Although the northern half of South-West Africa falls within the Tropic of Capricorn, the climate is on the whole temperate rather than tropical. The extreme north and north-east are hot and trying to Europeans, and malaria is very prevalent there during the autumn; but on the central plateau the dryness of the air makes the summer heat easily supportable, and the country generally is healthy, with clear, bracing atmosphere and much wind. The winters are cold, and ice often forms upon the central and southern plateaux. Rain falls during the summer from October to April, but rarely during the winter season. The mean annual rainfall varies with the latitude, from 6 inches in the south to 12 inches in the centre and reaching 22 inches in the north.

Except for those rivers forming part of the northern and southern frontiers of the country—the Kunene, Okavango, and Orange—there are practically none which carry surface water all the year round. Almost all are simply dry sandy watercourses which become torrents for a short period after rain; but save in very wet seasons few of these

2: Schapera E-4, 5 (no date) 1930
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Bushmen FX 10

H B 133 flow for any considerable distance. For the rest of the time they have water only below the bed or in pools. Away from these sandy beds water as a rule is extremely hard to find. After heavy rains great hollows in the rocks are filled with water which is a blessing to any traveller passing that way, and there are also vleis and depressions which hold water for a short while. Springs, however, are few and far between, and then generally occur in the river-courses.

H B 137 Corresponding to the variation in the rainfall there is a variation in the character of the vegetation. In the extreme south for a considerable distance semi-desert conditions prevail, the arid, stony plateaux and plains supporting a sparse growth of grass and small, scrubby bushes, including the different species of *Grewia* which produce the wild berries so much used by all the natives as food. In heavy rainy seasons, however, nutritious grasses and flowers spring up everywhere. The river-courses are clothed with trees, especially the Kameeldoorn (*Acacia giraffae*) and the Kokerboom (*Aloe dichotoma*), and in all of them, too, the South American *Nicotiana glauca* Grah., the wild tobacco plant, is found as a straggly, weedy shrub or tree. Northwards the veld assumes the characteristics of the Karroo until Rehoboth is reached, when it changes into park-like grass country studded with large thorn trees, being especially well timbered along the watercourses. From the mountainous portions of the Windhoek district northwards towards Omaruru the country is covered with level bush with an undergrowth of very nutritious grass, the valleys and watercourses being well wooded mostly with Acacia trees, especially the Kameeldoorn. Towards the north the bush becomes denser until it is fairly well timbered all over. In its northernmost section it is traversed by belts of open Mopane forest, and towards the Okavango fertile tropical vegetation is abundant. Numerous kinds of fruits, roots, and tubers used by the natives as food are found over the whole region, but most abundantly in the north. The edible bulbs belong for the most part to the *Irudaceae* family, while the tubers are generally *Asclepiads*, though the *Cyperaceae* and the *Oxalidae* also furnish succulent tuber-like growths.

H B 132 133 South of the Orange River the rocky western edge of the great interior plateau is extended into the highlands of Little Namaqualand in the Cape Province. With scanty soil and low rainfall (5 to 15 inches) this region shares the characteristics of the southern portion of South-West Africa. Short perennial streams are found in the Kamiesberg, but the mountainous country enclosed by the great bend

2: Schapera E-4, 5 (no date) 1930
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Bushmen FX 10

of the Orange River is very dry. The level arid plain of Bushmanland further east is essentially a continuation of the Kalahari, from which it is separated by the deep rocky valley of the Orange River. The summer rainfall is low (5 to 10 inches), increasing gradually from the west eastwards; there is practically no surface water, and the soil is usually bare, stony or sandy. The river-beds are mostly dry throughout the greater part of the year, and the Orange River is the only one that always contains water. The general aspect of the vegetation both here and in Namaqualand is that of widely-separated xerophytic shrubs and bushes, with a fair proportion of succulent plants in the low-lying valleys and on the rocky outcrops. Grasses do not form a conspicuous feature, but they occur on the high plateaus and sandy plains, where the vegetative period is short, and where they always assume a tufted habit.

Further south and east is the Upper or Northern Karroo, an arid tract of country stretching northwards to the Orange River at an elevation of between 2,800 and 6,000 feet above sea-level. It is bounded on the west by the Roggeveld, on the south by the Nieuweveld and Sneeuwberg ranges, which form part of the great escarpment of the interior plateau. The landscape appears for the most part in the form of vast treeless plains, only here and there broken by table-topped hills boldly scarped by sandstone and dolerite sheets, while occasionally dark ridges, the outcrops of inclined sheets of dolerite, are seen traversing the country for many miles.

The region is exposed to great extremes of temperature. Severe frosts are experienced in the winter nights, while the summer heats are correspondingly severe, reaching at times to 110° F. in the shade. The feeling of oppression at such times is increased by the hot westerly winds which predominate during the first half of summer, although the nights are cool even during the periods of greatest heat. The winter days, on the other hand, are very enjoyable, the air being keen and bright with a maximum of sunshine. There is a wide range of rainfall, from less than 5 inches in the north-west to 25 inches in the east; the greater part of this falls in violent summer thunderstorms, and almost all the water runs off the sun-baked soil into deep gullies which hurry it off to the sea. Severe droughts are common, and the streams are all intermittent. The soil is shallow and rock-strewn, except in the alluvial tracts in the valley bottoms, and surface limestone becomes an important feature in the drier parts of the region. Pans are abundant, and a striking feature in the low-grade

2: Schapera E-4, 5 (no date) 1930
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valleys of the north-west are the wide "vloers" of Carnarvon and Calvinia, more or less well-defined flat areas a few miles wide and thinly covered with brackish silt.

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Owing to the great range in rainfall and altitude there is a considerable diversity of conditions in this region. While the north-western parts are little better than desert, the more favoured districts to the south and east are well covered with permanently-occupied farms, although agriculture is restricted to the alluvial tracts. The vegetation is everywhere of a semi-desert character. The greater part of the country supports only a sparse and incomplete covering of shrublets and stunted, skeleton-like bushes, most of which belong to the family *Compositae*. In spite of their unpromising appearance when burnt up by the rays of the summer sun, they afford excellent sustenance for stock even in the driest seasons, and at the present time they provide nourishment to millions of sheep and goats, supporting one of the great wool growing industries of the world. Thorny plants, succulents, bulbous and tuberous plants abound in places, but trees, principally Acacias, appear as a rule only along the dry sandy river-beds. Grasses are frequent in the rainy season, but nowhere form the dominant feature of the vegetation.

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The High Veld of the Orange Free State and the Southern Transvaal is essentially an extension eastwards of the Upper Karroo, but has a much better rainfall. Lying for the most part over 5,000 feet above sea-level, and with an invigorating climate, it is perhaps the most favourable region in the Union for a white population. The rainfall ranges from about 20 to 35 inches, and occurs principally during the summer months in thunderstorms. The winters are dry and cold, and severe frosts are by no means uncommon. The streams are often perennial. The country generally presents a most monotonous type of scenery, consisting of vast rolling plains, although as one travels westward towards drier regions the surface becomes flatter or more varied by steep-sided flat-topped hills. It is essentially grass country and for the most part devoid of indigenous trees, except along the river-banks, which are frequently clothed with willows and mimosas; shrubs are found on the koppies, while growing among the grasses are large numbers of bulbous and tuberous plants.

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The Coastal Regions

The country between the escarpment and the ocean is considerably smaller than the interior plateau, but as regards climate and structure

2: Schapera E-4, 5 (no date) 1930
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it presents as much diversity. Along the west coast from the Olifants River northwards as far as the Kunene stretches a desolate and barren wilderness, well deserving the name of "Namib" or desert by which it is known in South-West Africa. This arid tract varies in width from 18 miles in the north to about 85 miles towards the south, and the ground-level rises gradually and evenly from the sea to the plateau. The greater part of the surface is covered by drifting sand dunes, which stretch in wave after wave to the horizon; here and there low gravelly hills and ridges of hard rock project through the mantle of sand, while in places gravel plains and sandy flats vary the monotonous billow of the landscape. The belt of dunes is widest and most continuous south of the Swakop, some of them reaching a height of 300 feet and over; further north they are at once much less continuous and much lower, and the country east of them is more broken. The Northern Namib is further distinguished from the Southern by the presence of watercourses which have kept an open channel to the sea.

The cold Benguella current sweeping the coast from the Antarctic is primarily responsible for the aridity of this region. The coast is dominated by cool winds from south and south-west for about 30 miles inland, although there are occasional very hot winds from the east during the dry season. The winds blowing inland over the cold water lose a considerable amount of their moisture, which hangs as a dense mist over the coastal border almost all the year round, but especially heavily in winter. The Namib in consequence is a practically rainless desert, the mean annual rainfall at Walvis Bay, for instance, being 0·3 inches, and at Port Nolloth 2·17 inches. The temperature, lowered by the Antarctic current, is fairly constant. Port Nolloth in the south, with a mean annual temperature of 57·5°, has the least annual range of temperature in South Africa; February the warmest month has a temperature of only 60·1°, while July the coolest month averages 54·2°.

The result of the deficient rainfall is a very scanty, intensely xerophytic vegetation. The plants are stunted and dwarfed, and nowhere form a conspicuous covering to the earth. Here and there considerable areas are almost entirely devoid of vegetation, although along much of the coastal border the wet and heavy sea fog maintains a sparse cover of bush on the sandy ground. From about 25 miles inland the landscape is characterized by such plants as the milk bush (*Euphorbia*) and cacti, while towards the east, in years of abundant rainfall, the country is fairly well grassed. In the river beds rich

2: Schapera E-4, 5 (no date) 1930
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Bushman FX10

verdure may be found, such as various Acacias, the principal of which are the Kameeldoorn (*Acacia giraffae*) and the Ana (*Acacia albida*). The leaves and pods of the latter provide the staple food for the cattle, sheep and goats in these parts. Other characteristic vegetable growths are the inflammable candle bush (*Sarcocaulon Burmanni*) and, in the area inland from Walvis Bay, the famous *!nara* (*Acanthosicyos horrida Welw.*), a leafless cucurbitaceous plant with an edible melon-like fruit which when in season forms practically the sole article of diet of the natives. In one or two spots is found the most remarkable of all, the unique gymnosperm, *Welwitschia mirabilis*, which during a long lifetime produces only two pairs of leaves.

At the Olifants River commences another tract of country, characterized by mountains of the folded type, which extend in parallel ranges, separated by wide valleys, over the whole southern portion of the Cape Province as far east as Humansdorp. From the narrow coastal strip fringing this tract the ground rises more or less abruptly to the mountains of the Folded Belt. To the west the rise is gradual through the fertile Goudini valley of Worcester district; further eastward the vegetation and climate partake more and more of the Karroo character, the Oudtshoorn valley and the many kloofs to the east being generally known as the Southern Karroo. The scenery here rapidly changes to bare uninteresting veld, traversed by deep gullies which are generally dry in the summer. In all directions the landscape is bounded by barren-looking mountains, whose steep, rocky sides appear from a distance to be entirely destitute of vegetation. Nothing can exceed the contrast between the scenery on the opposite slopes of the coast ranges: the traveller from the south, after ascending through luxuriant vegetation, frequently clothed in mist, emerges suddenly into a region of precipices and rocks, where rain may not have fallen for months. The soil in the valleys, however, is fertile when it can be brought under irrigation.

The total annual rainfall is by no means deficient, the average for the region being about 29·5 inches, although it varies greatly according to locality. The average for the Cape Peninsula is 40 inches, most of it falling on the eastern side of Table Mountain. Immediately to the east of Cape Town and as far as Knysna there is a decrease to between 15 and 20 inches. The rainfall then becomes more abundant, the well-wooded Knysna itself being one of the best-watered districts of South Africa, with an average rainfall of 40 inches. Further inland, except on the mountain slopes, the rainfall is much less, and the range

2: Schapera E-4, 5 (no date) 1930
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of temperature is somewhat greater. Most of the rains fall during the winter (April to September), when the temperature, though mild, is still relatively low. The summer is the dry season, and long droughts regularly recur.

These climatic conditions have resulted in the production of a peculiar and characteristic type of vegetation. The dominant plants are evergreen shrubs some three to six feet high, usually with small, stiff, leathery leaves. Between the shrubs are many smaller plants, numbers of which possess bulbs, tubers or other subterranean organs storing up quantities of water and food substances. The sandy plains support a dwarf, heath-like vegetation, while the marshy hollows, the stream margins, mountain ravines and mountain summits all possess their own peculiar plant forms. The families characteristic of this region include the *Proteaceae*, to which belong many of the evergreen shrubs, among them the well-known silver tree (*Leucadendron argenteum*) of the Cape Peninsula and the sugar bush (*Protea mellifera*); the *Restionaceae*, a family of grass-like plants which largely take the place of true grasses in this region, though many of the latter occur as well; and the *Ericaceae* (heath family), which are very numerous and often strikingly beautiful. Forest patches are found in the kloofs and seaward sides of the mountains, the largest area of more or less continuous forest in the Union lying between the Outeniqua Mountains and the sea, extending from George through Knysna to the Humansdorp district. They are composed almost entirely of high timber trees, the more common being species of yellow wood, cedar, ebony, stinkwood, ironwood, and sneezewood.

The last natural region with which we are concerned is the Central or Great Karroo of the Cape Province. Lying at a level of from 1,500 to 3,000 feet above the sea, it stretches as a gently-undulating plain from the foot-hills of the Folded Belt to the mountains forming part of the great escarpment in the north. On the west it extends to the valley of the Olifants River, while in the east the Sundays River may be taken as marking its limit. The mountains of the Folded Belt rob the rain-bearing winds from the sea of their moisture, and so give rise to the aridity of this region. The rainfall is scanty, the annual mean being less than 5 inches in the west, although it increases to 15 inches in the centre and east. The surface soil is shallow, hard, and compact; the river-courses are dry, except during the brief periods of rainfall in the summer, when the bulk of the water is rushed off immediately to the sea. In the dry season the whole region presents

2: Schapera E-4, 5 (no date) 1930
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Bushmen FX18

a most desolate appearance. Verdure is entirely wanting, the numerous gullies are empty, and the low ranges of ironstone koppies which dot the plains seem to reflect the heat as from a mirror. The vegetation is composed very largely of drought-resisting thorn bushes, succulents, bulbous and tuberous plants. Grasses appear only in exceptionally wet years, while trees are usually absent, except along the dry river-courses and on the mountain slopes in the east, where the rainfall is highest. Till the early years of the nineteenth century the Great Karroo was regarded as a desert unfit for man or beast; since then well-sinking and donkey transport have bettered the conditions, and the region has gradually become occupied.

Fauna

The great variety of habitat provided by the country taken as a whole has naturally favoured the development of a varied and abundant fauna.[1] South Africa has long been renowned for the wealth of its larger forms of animal life, although with the advance of European settlement and colonization the numbers have been rapidly reduced, particularly of certain classes of big game. The native inhabitants had certainly done something to reduce the numbers and affect the distribution of the fauna, but a balance had been reached which still left the country richly stocked. The Cape was full of game when the first European settlers established themselves there 250 years ago, and in their gradual spread inland the white men found the same abundance of fine forms of animal life in each new tract of country that they entered. A few decades were enough to convert each newly-opened district from a hunter's paradise into a stock-farming country, and the increase of veld-burning carried the destruction into other zones of life. But over large parts of South Africa the face of the country itself has been little changed on the whole, and a good deal of the original fauna has survived, even on much of the enclosed land.

The mammalian fauna is, or rather was, characterized by the great abundance and variety of antelopes, the presence of such remarkable "living fossils" as the elephant, giraffe, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, and aardvark, as well as of the buffalo, zebra, and quagga, and the abundance of carnivora, large and small. During the eighteenth

[1] An excellent short account is given by Dr. E. L. Gill, "Descriptive Sketch of the Fauna of South Africa," *Official Year Book of the Union*, No. 9, pp. 31–41. Cf. also Passarge, *op. cit.*, pp. 78–86.

4: Hoernlé E-5 (1912-1913) 1925
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Nama

occupies approximately two fifths of this area. In the past the northern limit of the Nama was indefinite until the pressure from the north by the Herero became serious, and certainly since the early part of the last century the Nama have been chiefly concentrated in the area of Great Namaqualand. This country is a high level plateau, or tableland, with an average altitude of 3,500 feet above sea level. Along the coast there is a strip of absolute sandy waste, of varying width but averaging about 35 miles across. The country rises rapidly from the coast inland, and the central tableland is cut off from the desert strip, or Namib, by a plateau range of sandstone formation running from north to south with an average height of 4,500 ft. The northern boundary is formed by the Awas mountains, a rugged mass of primary formation rising to a height of 7,200 feet above sea level and forming the watershed of the country. The rainfall over the whole area is extremely small, averaging from 4 inches in the south to 12 inches in the north. The country is, then, on the whole a barren plain with sparse vegetation and little permanent water. Yet after a season of sufficient rains it becomes a waving sea of grass, admirably suited both to cattle and sheep.

Such is the home of the nomadic pastoral Nama who originally owned great herds of large-boned, long-horned cattle and flocks of fat-tailed hairy sheep. Before the coming of the missionaries these people wandered about from fountain to fountain, seeking pasture for their stock. Large permanent fountains, or pools in river beds were claimed as their property by the different groups, rather than areas enclosed by definite territorial boundaries.

There are at present in the Protectorate, besides remnants of the various groups of the Great Namaqua with which this paper is mainly concerned, remnants of other groups who came in from the south of the river in the early part of the nineteenth century, when the general movement of the Hottentot peoples was away from the white settlements. These incoming groups spoke practically the same language as the Nama groups; indeed, the language throughout the area is very similar, so that one can hardly even speak of dialects, though undoubtedly there is a slight difference of vocabulary in the widely separated groups and, in some cases, a slightly different intonation.

6: Hoernlé E-5 (1912-1913)1923
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Nama

THE EXPRESSION OF THE SOCIAL VALUE OF WATER AMONG THE NAMAN OF SOUTH-WEST AFRICA.

BY

Mrs. R. F. A. Hoernlé, B.A. (*née* Miss A. W. Tucker).

Read July 13, 1923.

312 231 It seems hardly necessary to emphasise, before a South African audience, the importance of water in a country like South-West Africa, the home of the Naman. They are a pastoral people, to whom "God gave cattle as their grass," as one of them put it to me, so that a good supply of fodder and water are the two essentials of their existence. Grass is often easier to find than water.

●133 132 231 When Moffat, over a hundred years ago, inquired of a traveller in South-West Africa what the country was like to which he was journeying he was told: "Sir, you will find plenty of sand and stones, a thinly scattered population always suffering from want of water, on plains and hills roasted like a burnt loaf, under the scorching rays of a cloudless sky." That is a pretty good description of the country in the south which is the home of the Naman, in its normal condition, yet it only wants a few regular showers of rain to convert it into a veritable sea of grass, such as it is now after the wonderful season of rain that is just finished there. Grass there is enough for animals, wild and tame, for at least three years to come, yet long before that time much of it will have become inaccessible, or would have done under primitive conditions, because it will be too far removed from the nearest available water. Ten years ago, when I was travelling through the Richtersveld in a season of great drought, we came upon secluded spots where there was grass in plenty, which was still nourishing enough in spite of the fact that it was dry, yet the natives were creeping miserably along the rugged banks of the Orange, feeding their animals on the quick grass at the edge, for they did not dare to move away from the precious water. This sort of experience makes one realise vividly that it is water which must be the first thought in planning any settlement, or in deciding on any trek, and the quantity of water available will determine the numbers which can settle at any one spot and the length of time during which they can stay there.

312 361 731

Note.—It has not been possible to indicate the tone of the Hottentot words in all cases where it was necessary, owing to typographical difficulties. Also, it was not possible to indicate a nasalized u for the same reason.

9: Ten Rhyne D-5 (1673) 1933
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Cape Hottentot

The Journal

of Wilhelm Ten Rhyne

in which is given an account

of Saldanha Bay and Dassen Island

and principally of

The Cape of Good Hope

and the Natives of that Place called Hottentots.

The Arrival.

On the 10th of October 1673, under a clear sky but with clouds at the horizon as is usual near shore, with a south-south-west wind blowing and holding a course between South and East, we took soundings and failed to find bottom at 120 fathoms, but soon had the great joy of first sighting land at a latitude of 32 degrees, the factor pointing it out to us. Driven back, however, by a contrary gale, after various shifts and much anxiety how to reprovision ourselves, on the 13th of the same month we made Saldanha Bay with its crescent-shaped entry, in a calm air with a gentle South-East wind breathing, and cast anchor in a sandy bottom. 133

When we examined the bay in this shore to which we had so newly come and compared the outline in our maps with the reality as presented to our eyes, we had immediate cause to blame the carelessness of the draughtsman or his informant. There was but one feature which the map had in common with the reality, to wit, a hill on either side of the harbour's mouth. For the rest, the islands differed both in number and position: they were fewer than represented in the map, and differed in position four points in the compass. They were thronged with sea-birds of varied form and hue.

Here, because I yearned to refresh my spirits, wearied by the hardships of the voyage, with the charm of a strange land, I for the first time set foot in Africa. With me came the captain, the factor, and some few oarsmen that managed our boat. The hills spread out in a great circle, the mountains drew our eyes in all directions over the

9: Ten Rhyne D-5 (1673) 1933
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Cape Hottentot

vast expanse of heaven, and earth with the varied charm of many plants seemed to rival the rich gardens of Semiramis or Alcinous, or to present a vision of the Elysian fields in the midst of a wilderness. Of these plants I forthwith collected a generous supply that I might afterwards make offering of the actual specimens to the Botanical Muses.* I specially admired the enormous abundance of gum aloes, capable of an annual yield of thousands of pounds of bitter juice if cultivated. Then the approach of evening recalled us from our hunting to our ship where there were many sick men already almost at the last gasp. On our return we skirted a stony beach covered with a rich variety of shell fish. Then escaping without hurt from the dangers that might befall us (I must explain that eight Dutchmen recently who were hunting the hippopotamus perished wretchedly at the hands of the Hottentots on this very spot)[1]) we regained our crazy bark in the dinghy. Next day we weighed anchor, picking up a fair N.W. breeze outside the bay, and in the afternoon we sailed past Dassen Island, which is occupied only by a few posts established by the Illustrious East India Company, our great glory and protection, for catching seals and pasturing the sheep.

On the 14th of October at the fall of night a gentle S.W. breeze carried us to the shore and we cast anchor in 23 fathoms of water.

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charge of the Dutch post at Saldanha Bay were also murdered by Hottentots of the same tribe. A punitive expedition under Ensign Hieronymus Cruse was despatched from the Fort at Table Bay, but the Hottentots could not be got at, except for one slight skirmish, although 800 head of cattle and 900 sheep were looted from them and brought back to the Fort. The war which started in this way dragged on for four years, the Dutch, assisted by the Capemen and other local Hottentots, sending out several expeditions against Gonnema, who with his men always managed to escape in time, although not without the loss of his cattle and sheep. Peace was finally restored in June, 1677, when the Hottentots submitted and promised to pay tribute to the Dutch. (Theal, *op. cit.*, chaps. 30, 31, passim; D. 1673-1677, passim.)

9: Ten Rhyne D-5 (1673) 1933
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On the 15th, with a gentle N.W. wind blowing, when we were rejoicing in the distant prospect of the long-desired Cape of Good Hope, we sailed past another island, Robben Island, distant according to the maps five miles from our fort, eight miles from Dassen Island, and about fifteen from Saldanha Bay. It is not made conspicuous by any lofty mountain peak; as a matter of fact only a low hill rises there. It is used as a prison for convicts employed in gathering shells to be burned for the lime for the new fort.* Here are many chameleons, smaller than the Indian variety, insects of every sort, small reptiles, various snakes, poisonous spiders as big as a man's fist, etc.

At four in the afternoon Table Bay received us, having lost abundance of men in this voyage, and on the next day the table of the Governor, an incomparable man.[2] We were summoned to his board by the sound of the bugle; and while rowing ashore our long-boat was hindered in reaching the sandy beach of Africa by a species of very large seaweed, commonly called *drombassen*. The whole of our smaller ship's boat would scarcely have sufficed to carry one plant. This seaweed is a sign to those approaching the Cape of Good Hope of their speedy arrival, as is also the presence of a species of sea-bird, an albatross of a whitish colour and small size. The place delighted us by its strangeness, the interest of the observer being excited to a livelier attention by the fact that the circumstances of the inhabitants of this part are still unknown to writers. For they say (and this is all they tell us) that a certain emperor spread his sway from the Mountains of the Moon to the Cape of Good Hope or the extremities of Africa; that his realm was divided into four kingdoms, and called Monomotapae.[3]

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* The present castle, founded 1666, occupied 1674 (the year after Ten Rhyne's visit), and finished 1676. (B.F.)

[2]) The Governor at this time was Isbrand Goske (1672-76), the first to bear the title Governor in place of Commander. He had been sent out specially to prepare the Cape for defence in the event of its being attacked by the English or French, with whom the Netherlands were then at war, and the building of the castle was completed during his tenure of office.

[3]) Ten Rhyne hardly does justice to Hondius, Dapper and other earlier Dutch writers whose accounts of the Hottentots should have been familiar to him. Legends of Monomotapa and the vast wealth of this Empire were still current in his time, but of the Cape itself a good deal of accurate information was already available in published works.

9: Ten Rhyne D-5 (1673) 1933
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Cape Hottentot

Here I shall not attempt to relate a regular history, my intention being to confine myself within the limits of a journal. Did these people spring originally from Ham, the son of Noah, with the exception of some Arabs of the stock of Shem who entered Africa later on? Or did the native races in Africa increase and multiply, and living frugally in a place unknown to fame, and denied sustenance for their numerous population by an unproductive soil, frequently send out their youth in quest of new lands to settle, until, it may be, these emigrants, spreading far and wide unobserved, finally settled in the remotest shores of Africa? These questions are not so important for us to answer; let us content ourselves with learning their ways of life and their dealings with others. But as a preliminary to this we must inquire for a little while into the nature and situation of the land they occupy.

CHAP. I.

The Situation of the Cape of Good Hope.

The Promontory known as the Cape of Good Hope is situated at the southernmost point of Africa. Its longitude, in respect of the Straits of Gibraltar, is 39 degrees, 25 minutes; and its latitude, in respect of the Hesperian Promontory and *Guardasu* (?) is 34 degrees and 30 minutes. It was discovered in the year 1498 by Vasco di Gama, sailing under the protection of John, King of Portugal.[34a]) Its mountains tower up to heaven, but are barren and very unfriendly to man. The tribes here are little blessed with crops, lying under the influence of niggard stars. The barren land stretches out vast and formless in pure sandy deserts, with bronze ore thrusting through the surface, unrelieved by the blessings of vegetation, but friendly rather to thorns and thistles and rough briars, unless by assiduous and prolonged cultivation it be made to yield pasturage, which even then is but scant. Apart from the sandy wastes it consists of huge stony mountains with here and there a plain. Worthy of note, then, is a certain wide level expanse with a circumference of about three miles, where a bloody battle once took place, and which is called in consequence

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[34a]) The Cape of Good Hope was first "discovered" by Bartholomeu Dias in 1487, and doubled again by Vasco da Gama in 1497, on his famous voyage to India, the first by the Cape sea-route.

9: Ten Rhyne D-5 (1673) 1933
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Cape Hottentot

Bakkeley Plaats.[4]) There is also another plain, called by our countrymen De Buffelsjacht,[5]) perched on a mountain difficult of access, beyond which it is not yet known whether the country is flat or mountainous. But who could measure all those mountain heights, winding hills, and spreading plains?

Of the mountains near the Fort the loftiest is called Table Mountain, from its flat top, and from its height it is a beacon for those seeking this harbour. From base to summit it is said to measure five *leucae*.* And certain it is that it was after a very stiff climb and the loss of much sweat that I succeeded in scaling it. There were myriads of different plants; and at the foot of the mountain, which is cleft through the middle, I passed through a marshy grove of palmitides, with sharply reticulated roots. Once we met a terrifying troop of yelling baboons; and during our descent in the evening saw many "meteors." Sparks were dancing in every direction in the air, and the first sight of them terrified my companions, who supposed that these must be the blazing eyes of lions, noted here for their daring. But when I tried to catch them in my hand the sparks fled; and I learned subsequently that these "meteors" resemble in their marshy juice, which glows in the darkness, the meteor *bolis*. Another mountain which formerly gave its name to the place is called Lion Mountain, not from the roaring of the savage winds, but from its natural shape. On its summit are always posted two look-outs to give warning of the approach of ships.

The sheer snowy mountains with which all this region is hemmed in are naturally associated with rivers as a body is with its shadow. The most important are: 1. Bot river, 2. Palmiet river (?), 3. Berg river, which springs more obviously than the others from the mountains, 4. River Sonder End, rising among the mountains but of extent unknown as yet, 5. Breede river, a shallow stream, very

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4) Bakkeley Plaats is near the village of Vredendal, west of Van Rhynsdorp. The name is derived from the Malay *barkelehi*, to fight, and refers to a skirmish which took place here in May, 1668, between the Dutch stationed at Saldanha Bay and some Namaqua who had stolen some cattle and sheep from them and from other Hottentots. (D., May 17, 1668; Godée-Molsbergen, *Reizen in Zuid-Afrika*, I, 134).

5) Probably the Buffelsjagt R. in the district of Swellendam, to which cattle-trading expeditions were often sent from Hottentots Holland. The country beyond was not fully known until after Schryver's journey of 1689.

* See note on opposite page. The height of Table Mountain is 3,582 feet, so that Ten Rhyne's estimate is somewhat generous.

9: Ten Rhyne D-5 (1673) 1933
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Cape Hottentot

pleasant by reason of the trees along its banks, 6. Elands Kloof river.* These rivers, with which the region is copiously irrigated, are, for the most part at least, very wholesome with their sweet sun-warmed waters.

On the 17th October I visited the extensive gardens of the noble Company, the abundant source of fresh supplies to visiting ships. It was a lovely sight with its plantations of lemons, citrons, and oranges, its close hedges of rosemary, and its laurels, equal in height to a tall tree, all fragrant in the sun. Through it runs a river that rises at the foot of the mountain, the waters of which are the cause of its smiling fertility. It is the very essence of greenness set in the midst of thorns and barren thickets. From there I ranged with my eyes over the neighbouring mountains, and could plainly see, though at a distance, the source of the S.E. wind. For when the summits of the mountains in the vicinity are covered with a deep bank of cloud gradually creeping down, then comes the stormy South-Easter, its greater or less violence being in accordance with the rarity or density of the cloud, its largeness or smallness, its rise or fall. This cloud I have often seen with the naked eye descending from Table Mountain. I have noticed that this wind generally comes in great gusts and that it is always blowing, as if this were the kingdom of Aeolus. For although the stars keep ever on their way with unvarying course, they do not impart the same motions to the air. So here, while one wind, and that not a steady one, prevails on land, another at the same moment is found on the sea, blowing in two or three directions in the bay, and in still a different direction outside it. The cause lies in the various physical features of the mountains. For even if the air be quite still elsewhere, yet the mountain which is continuous with Table Mountain is always vomiting forth a gale, and is hence called Devil's Peak.

In this connection I might remark that if the physical features of different places were examined more accurately in the light of experience, the art of navigation might not wander within such ill-defined limits. At present the exponents of the art attribute the ignorance arising from their uncertainty to mysterious currents and wave pressures. But on what else can trade winds depend, if not on lofty snow-capped mountains, especially if you remember that these winds blow at the time of the melting of the snows? Where the quarter of the wind is unchanging, or changes but once a year, the only possible operative

* There is room for doubt as to the identification of rivers no. 2 and 6 in this list, Ten Rhyne's information is so slight. See *Journals of Bergh and Schrijver*, ed. Mossop, V.R.S. 12, Appendix C. (B.F.)

10: Grevenbroek F-5 (ca. 1694) 1933
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Cape Hottentot

133 There is a river a day's journey from the Cape, fed by many streams, which with a gentle motion pours its waters into the ocean near Saldanha Bay.[23]) Several times in crossing this I have caught the smell of sulphur. It was like the smell I remember encountering in the year 1673 in Latium in the open country, when I was on my way from Etruria, on the right of the Via Flaminia not far from Civita Vecchia. After my departure from the city, I hear, this region was shaken by an earthquake and almost overthrown. May the Gods avert the omen, and falsify my fears, so that no similar disaster may at any time fall suddenly upon these heedless, unprepared colonists, and that we may not see here a second Aetna, or some Vesuvius to rival its fires, bursting forth in a moment. Though assuredly my own experience of the preludes to such disasters makes it clear that a deadly prodigy like this portends no good. Oh, that I may be a false prophet of evil, and that the Gods above may bring it about that by timely expiations, humble purification, and acts of propitiation we may experience an averting Jove who will lay aside his angry but not inexorable bolts! Pardon the digression.

778 782 A certain Dutchman whose word I can trust assures me that he has never passed a certain rock a mile or two distant from his farm, without observing the natives who accompany him pluck a branch from some shrub or tree hard by and strew it upon the ground as a sacred offering.[24]) Being asked the reason for this act they replied, without further explanation, that it was the custom of their ancestors from of old and long in use among them, and that they took it very ill that our countrymen should foully insult their worship by disburdening their bowels in this sacred spot.

One or two natives have told me in addition that at annual gatherings at a fixed place and date under a shady rock they offer tribute of sacrifice as if to an oracle. But on this point I shall speak more at large below.

562 782 291 Their women, who are wonderfully complaisant, and no less chaste, they abuse like cattle or slaves, making them bear loads upon their backs, and they keep them under a harsh and rigid discipline. From ankle to knee their legs are bound with a close series of loops and thongs,

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23) Probably the Berg R.

24) A similar usage was noted as far back as 1655 by Corporal Willem Muller (see above, p. 77). The "rock" to which G. refers was probably one of the "graves" of Heitsi Eibib, one of the outstanding figures in Hottentot mythology and belief. Cf. above, "General Introduction," p. xiii, and Schapera, *op cit.*, 383 ff.

13: Kirby R-5 (1931-1932) 1932
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Korana

descriptions in Wikar and Wuras give a fair account of the nature of the ensemble, Stow's description is entirely erroneous. This is the more to be regretted since Stow's famous work *The Native Races of South Africa* is much more accessible and widely read than the writings of the other travellers.

Hendrik Jakob Wikar, in his Report to Baron J. von Plettenberg on his journey to the Orange River, 1778-9, described the Korana reed-dance as follows. "They now entertained us with dances and flutes, and on my second trip I understood that they had talked to the other people about their advantage in having seen me; they also had then made for the flute dance a song about me, the rhinoceros dance which I have already described among the Gesicquas, and which I had found to be not unpleasant to see, by the side of the flute dance. To this last sometimes also belongs the mourning song of a woman, whose husband has been slain in war. The song has the following content. She sees herself as a widow with her children, bereft of the care of her husband and their father, and herself pledged to hunt the game which her husband formerly provided. She hopes that she may live long, so that her son will be old enough to fill his father's place and hunt the game for her. For that dance each of the men is provided with a flute, and they form themselves into a circle. Some have large flutes, others small; one man stands with his flute in the middle of the circle. He first begins the dance, and the song, with words; whereupon those standing in the circle begin likewise to dance round and round and at the same time to blow upon their flutes. The tone of the large flute is never introduced into the song unless it fits in with it. The large flute is especially heard when the song is finished; so they dance very curiously, stamping their feet in time. The women dance round the circle one after another, clapping their hands, and here also happens something which reminds one of caresses, for, as they dance round and round, one or two men slink out of the circle. Thereupon they clasp each other tightly; he who has come out of the circle dances beside a woman, and draws gently upon the strings of her fore-kaross, upon which she seems" (feigns) "to threaten him."

According to Wikar, the reed-flutes were made from river-reed, from which arrows were also made. "Their arrows," he said, with which they shoot wild animals are generally iron "harpoons"; and they also use on the tip of the reed-arrow a sharp-pointed white stone in place of the iron "harpoon," because the stone often breaks into pieces in the body of the wild animal. The other arrows are made of sharp gemsbok bone, etc., which is stuck inside the flute-reed." In his description of the Hartebeeste Rivier, Wikar points out that it is thickly overgrown with

13: Kirby R-5 (1931-1932) 1932
FX13 Hottentot FX13
Korana

"Vaderlandze of fluytjesriet." The Hartebeestrivier, is, of course, a tributary of the Orange on the South side, about Long. 20¼, Lat. 29¼. 133

Wuras, in his *An Account of the Korana* (MSS. 1858), states on p. 295 (reprinted in *Bantu Studies, Vol. III. p.* 287), "The Aas (the reed play or dance). The day on which the play begins, the men make flutes of reed all of which must have the same tone" (sic). "They then stand in a circle, the music master comes round and listens, if all the flutes are in tune. When he declares them to be in unison," (sic) "the dance commences. The men blowing the flute move in time in a circle; the women form a second circle, and, enclosing the men, dance round them clapping their hands. The dance lasts the whole night. The greatest immorality prevails during these plays, of which there are several. In some of them they imitate the howls and cries of different animals, and at sunrise the men rush to the kraal and catch the sheep and goats for the day's feast, howling like many wolves." 533 535

Engelbrecht and Meinhof practically confine themselves to giving the name and simple definitions of the instrument. Engelbrecht calls the flute *ǂās* and describes it as "a flute made of reed. Of these, different sizes existed, and the tone was also different. The people stood in a circle, and thereupon played and danced." Meinhof calls the reed-flute *ǂ'ās* and the reed-dance *ǂ'ā-s/aī-b*, and further states, "They" (the Korana) "have no drum," (sic,) "but like the Nama, they have a reed-flute. The women sing and the men play upon the reed-flute." 534

My informants were the oldest men, since the reed-dance has been completely stamped out by the missionaries, some of whom have recorded their pleasure at succeeding in eradicating it. In the Report of the Wesleyan Methodist Missionary Society, Year 1830, p. 44, written from Plaatberg, occurs the following statement regarding the Korana. "During the last year we have got several hymns into use among the people whom we frequently hear singing them in their private houses; and the rapidity with which the songs of Zion supplant the melancholy lora" (printer's error for *gora*, v. infra) "and the whistling reed is truly surprising." This then, was the view of the missionary Archbell, shared, it may be added, by many other missionaries. This particular mission was started in 1827 and ended in 1833. That the "songs of Zion" had no very lasting effect upon the Korana will be seen when their vocal music is discussed. One old man, named Matiti, undertook to make several reed-flutes for me. The proper material was, they said, river reed, but as the only available supplies in the Vaal River were either distant or in deep water, they only procured one stem as a sample. This 533 177 797 534 814 115